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# THE TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

Volume XXIII

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### THE NOVEMBER COVER

The November *Journal* is devoted to educational research. The cover depicts a student teacher making a clinical study of a young child. Such research is quite necessary in successful education. *The cover photograph is used through the courtesy of the 1951 Sycamore Yearbook.*

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# The Scientist in Education

It has been the custom to devote the November issue of *The Teachers College Journal* to educational research, and in following this tradition, we present in this issue articles concerning research in the field of education. The articles are researches contributed by members of the faculty and teachers in the field, and abstracts of theses completed by graduate students at Indiana State Teachers College during the past year.

The physical or biological scientist many times scoffs at the idea of the existence of such a thing as educational research. He no doubt will claim that the field of education itself is so subjective and that controlled experimentation in this area so ridiculous, that such research can never be objective or conclusive. He will contend that research in education is primarily a matter of reflective or philosophic thinking, and as such can make no valid use of the scientific method. The scientist is correct perhaps in questioning the validity and reliability of all conclusions reached by educational research. Nevertheless, considerable noteworthy progress has been made in education as a result

of problem solving through educational research.

Granting that the field of education is highly subjective and controlled experimentation extremely dif-

research are quite distinct and separate. In fact all valid research employs the scientific method of problem solving. The scientific method is free from biasness or prejudice—

it is based on fact. In so far as possible all factors are carefully controlled. Accurate measurements and the principles of analysis are always employed. Conclusions are based on exact knowledge. If our educational scientists will follow always these principles in his research, continued contributions to the progress of education will be the only possible outcome.

Thus we commend the research worker in education for his diligent

The *Teachers College Journal* seeks to present competent discussions of professional problems in education, and toward this end restricts its contributing personnel to those of training and experience in the field. The *Journal* does not engage in re-publication practice, in the belief that previously published material, however creditable, has already been made available to the professional public through its original publication.

Manuscripts concerned with controversial issues are welcomed, with the express understanding that all such issues are published without editorial bias or discrimination.

Articles are presented on the authority of their writers, and do not necessarily commit the *Journal* to points of view so expressed. At all times, the *Journal* reserves the right to refuse publication if in the opinion of the Editorial Board an author has violated standards of professional ethics or journalistic presentation.

difficult, it seems reasonable to assume that when several researches and experiments along the same line in various areas consistently produce the same results, a general principle has been discovered. And this has been the case in the field of psychology, in the field of teaching, and the field of education in general. Nearly all of our accepted principles and concepts of learning, of teaching, and of education have been derived only through long and difficult research.

This does not infer that educational research and so-called scientific

efforts in solving our vast and unlimited problems, and encourage more teachers and persons in education to accept their responsibilities as research workers. Each survey completed, each experiment undertaken, each historical study conducted, which follows the scientific method, will make its contribution to our vast store of educational knowledge, and supplement the research completed by others. The research worker has a definite place, a great responsibility and unlimited possibilities in the field of education.

CHARLES W. HARDAWAY  
Editor



# Factors Influencing Students To Enroll At Indiana State Teachers College

Charles W. Hardaway

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For the first time since the second World War nearly all institutions of higher education have experienced a marked decrease in enrollment during the school year, 1951. In some cases this decrease was serious enough to force institutions to reduce the faculty staff, and in a few instances, to close the doors of the school.



There are many understandable factors involved in this enrollment drop, chief among which are: (1) increased college expenses, (2) military demands for man power, (3) industrial demands for man power, and (4) remunerative employment opportunities for the high school graduates. All of these factors are playing their part in influencing prospective students to by-pass college education and enter gainful employment or military service direct from high school. And as a result, many institutions are finding their existence in precarious circumstances.

In the interest of maintaining large enrollments, in producing professionally trained citizens, and to prevent going out of existence, it becomes the obligations of the institutions of higher education to take steps to again influence the high school students to enroll in the colleges. In brief, more effective student recruitment programs must be designed.

One phase of such a program is

to determine first what factors seem to be significant in bringing students to the colleges. Once these factors are determined the institutions of higher learning will be able to capitalize upon them and develop more effective recruitment programs. The study deals with this phase of determining factors that are effective in bringing the students to the college.

## *Purpose of the Study*

The problem of this study was to determine, through a check-list method, what factors are influential in causing freshman to enroll at Indiana State Teachers College. By knowing these factors, the college will be able to build its recruitment program around them, and thereby, establish a more effective program.

## *Groups Studied and Methods of Procedure*

A check list was devised and circulated to nearly 300 freshman enrolled at Indiana State Teachers College during the Spring Term, 1951.

The check list consisted of a large number of factors which were considered possibilities in causing students to enroll at Indiana State. Sixteen factors were listed and space was left for students to list factors overlooked, or which pertained specifically to the responding individual. The factors as listed in the check sheet were:

College Day (at the high school, in which students talked with representative from I.S.T.C.).

Scholarship awarded by Indiana State.

Contacted by Alumni of Indiana State.

College activities (activities such as Band Tours, Debates, etc., which were presented at the high school by Indiana State students).

Influence of high school teachers (who advised students to go to Indiana State).

Influence of college students (who were attending Indiana State and suggested that student should attend Indiana State).

A visit to the campus of Indiana State.

Athletic contests (played by Indiana State Teachers College teams).

Advice of parents.

Advice of brothers or sisters.

Location of Indiana State Teachers College.

Low cost of tuition and other fees.

The fact that I.S.T.C. is a state institution.

College activities which student attended (plays, radio programs, etc., which were presented on campus).

Publications (distributed by Indiana State: such as bulletins, catalogs, newspaper items).

The fact that Indiana State is a teacher training college.

The students were asked to check only the items that definitely influenced them to attend I.S.T.C., and if possible to rank the factors in the order of their influence. In other words, the most important factor was to be ranked "1", the next most important factor "2", etc. The students were asked to add and rank any other factors not included on the check list.

In responding, most students ranked from three to six items. In the tabulation, items were given weighted points on the basis of rank, which resulted in a final rank of significance.

In order to make the study more meaningful, the writer classified the students into three categories, namely (a) Terre Haute residents (b) com-

(Information concerning tables on opposite page is given on page 34)

(Continued on page 33)



TABLE I  
FREQUENCY OF CHECKING OF THE FACTORS BY THE STUDENTS  
CLASSIFIED ON THE BASIS OF RESIDENCE AND SEX

Factors	Classification, Sex, No. of Students and Frequency of Items											
	Terre Haute residents			Commuting students			Dormitory students			Total group		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
	42	57	99	55	21	54	65	61	126	140	159	279
College day programs	5	7	12	1	0	1	5	12	17	11	19	30
Scholarship awarded	4	6	10	5	6	9	14	27	41	21	59	60
Advice of alumni	6	6	12	4	2	6	13	11	24	25	19	42
Activities present at H.S.	2	4	6	0	0	0	5	2	7	7	6	13
Advice of H. S. Teachers	18	25	43	17	9	26	23	32	55	58	66	124
Campus visit	7	11	18	7	2	9	22	25	47	36	58	74
Athletic contests by St. team	9	5	14	6	2	8	12	2	14	27	9	36
Advice of parents	25	37	62	15	7	20	18	20	38	56	64	120
Advice of brothers or sisters	8	15	21	7	5	12	9	4	13	24	22	46
Location of college	40	51	91	29	21	50	36	34	70	105	106	211
Low tuition	32	37	69	20	7	27	37	36	73	89	80	169
I.S.T.C. a state institution	8	8	16	4	5	7	14	17	31	26	28	54
Campus activity attended	4	11	15	2	1	3	1	1	2	7	15	20
Publications received	6	5	11	2	1	3	5	5	8	15	9	22
Teacher training institution	10	28	38	17	8	25	37	40	77	64	76	140
Advice of college students	15	35	48	11	10	21	26	31	57	52	74	126

Frequencies of the factors are based on number of times that factor was checked without regard for position of rank of the factors.

TABLE II  
RANK OF FACTORS INFLUENCING STUDENTS TO ENROLL  
IN INDIANA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE

Factor	Classification of students and rank of factors											
	Total group			Terre Haute residents			Commuting students			Dormitory and non-resident		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Location of the college	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	5	3
Low tuition cost	2	5	2	2	5	2	2	7	2	2	2.5	2
Teacher training institution	3	2	3	6	5	6	5	6	3	1	1	1
Advice of H. S. Teachers	4	6	4	4	6	4.5	4	5	4	5	2.5	4
Advice of parents	5	5	5	5	2	5	5	4.5	5	8	7	8
Advice of college students	6	4	6	5	4	4.5	6	2	6	4	6	5
Scholarship awarded	8	7	7	9.5	7	8	10	4.5	7	7	4	6.5
Visit to the campus	7	8	8	9.5	11	11	7	11	8.5	6	8	6.5
I. S. state institution	12	9	9	11	10	10	13	8	11.5	11	11	10
Advice of alumni	11	10	10	14	14	14.5	11	10	10	9	9	9
Advice of brothers and sisters	9	12	11	7	8	7	8	9	8.5	12	12	14
"College day" programs	15	11	12	12	12	12	15	15.5	15	13	10	11
Athletic contests	10	15	15	8	15.5	15	9	15.5	11.5	10	14	12.5
College campus activities	16	15	14	14	9	9	12	15.5	15	16	15	12.5
Publications	14	14	15	14	15	14.5	14	12	14	15	13	16
College "off-campus" actv.	15	16	16	16	15.5	16	16	15.5	16	14	16	15

# High School Athletic Benefit Plans

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Parents of high schools athletes are well-aware of the ever-present danger of injury in sports; and to make the problem an even graver one, many parents have had to bear the financial burden of treatment of athletic injuries sustained by their children. However, in recent years insurance coverage has been rapidly extended in this area, in keeping with the expanding viewpoint that calculated risks of injury and loss resulting from such activities should be distributed as broadly as possible so as to lessen the financial burden upon the victim.

The exact extent of hazard and risk in scholastic athletics had been seriously overlooked until the organization of a program of high school athletic insurance in Wisconsin in 1930. Risk ratios had been established chiefly on experience and observation; this resulted in the establishment of insurance, but neglected establishment of a basis for the programs of insurance. Now however, 32 states have plans for insuring high school athletes, and it has seemed desirable to analyze the data on the subject with a viewpoint of identifying trends which would be of a significant aid to further extension of such insurance as well as a means for improvement and strengthening of present plans in operation.

The purpose of the study them was (1) to determine what types of high school insurance plans are now in existence; (2) to determine if there is a basis for a comparison of the costs of premiums under the various

plans; (3) to determine the various kinds of coverage; (4) to consider the manner in which benefit plans are financed; (5) to determine if the benefits derived from the various types of plans are comparable; (6) to determine the number of students covered by athletic benefit plans; (7) to determine the most common injuries and to classify them; (8) to determine if protection is adequate in terms of claims filed and benefits paid; and (9) to present the trends in the development of the protective plans. The study is limited to the inter-scholastic aspects of the problem of high school athletic insurance.

The data collected for this study were concerned with the essential characteristics of the plans, including costs, patterns of coverage, schedules of benefits and the extent of coverage of the various plans in existence, plus information on the relative frequency of athletic injuries and their severity. The chief sources of data were: (1) the records of state high school athletic associations, (2) reports and information from the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations, (3) information obtained from commercial insurance companies, and (4) personal interviews and correspondence with executive officers of the various state high school athletic associations, and other persons interested in the movement.

## Summary of the findings

Two general types of plans now exist: the state association organized and operated programs and the commercially underwritten policies. Of the thirty-two plans in operation on a statewide basis, twenty-eight may

be described as state association plans. This implies that the insurance plan is either operated directly by the state athletic association or that it functions as an insurance concern organized for that purpose by the association as a wholly owned and operated subsidiary. In the remaining four states, the insurance plan is organized with commercial companies as the underwriter. The various state plans may be classified into one of four types: (1) coverage for each student upon the payment of a single registration fee, (2) coverage on a "per sport basis," which requires that the student register for each sport season, (3) coverage for each student upon single registration payment fee but a regular insurance company is the subsidiary, and (4) a joint benefit plan in which more than one state is involved in the insurance program, coverage being based upon a single registration fee.

Features of the athletic benefit plans in the thirty-two states may be summarized as follows:

1. In all except one of the states the parents contribute to premium payments; however in 23 states the school contributes to parent's payments, and in 8 states the state athletic associations also assist in the burden. The parents must bear the full burden in only two of the 32 states.

2. As to special benefits of the various state insurance plans, all except one includes X-ray expense, 26 include hospital expense, 10 include travel, and 13 cover principal sum in case of death.

3. Premiums range from \$1.00 per athlete per year to \$7.50 with the average being \$2.26. However the range of coverage is even greater. Some states have low premiums per pupil covering all sports but do not extend special benefits covering principal sum for death, hospitalization, transportation and X-ray. Other states have relatively low premiums and extend all of the special benefits.

4. Practically all of the 32 states cover their athletes in all sports in-

(Continued on page 34)

# Segregation Or Non-Segregation Of The Educable Mentally Defective

*An examination of the position of the seriously subnormal child when left in a regular school class, with special reference to studies on such cases.*

Edward T. Jordan

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Modern psychological research has led to the mass testing of the intelligence of large populations for the standardization of such tests as the

Terman Revision of the Binet, the Wechsler Bellevue, the Kuhlman Binet, and other modern measuring instruments.

The regular yearly testing of whole age groups has proved beyond doubt that there is a "Normal Distribution of Intelligence" in unselected populations, such that at least 4 per cent of the school population must be regarded as falling below the average or normal group in "Intelligence," "Foresight" or "Learning Ability."

If we accept the range of I.Q.'s 85-115, (plus or minus one standard deviation), as being the normal range we shall find according to standard figures that roughly 4 to 4½ per cent of the school population is developing mentally at a rate less than three-fourths of the normal rate.

We can exclude the cases with I.Q.'s below 50 from our computations as these people will have a mental age of less than eight years when they are sixteen years of age and free from compulsory attendance. These children at 6 years of age are too immature to begin kindergarten, still less enter the first grade, and at 12 years of age are still below this level,

though physically they may appear as well developed as the rest.

Compulsory public education is to us, a correlate of the equality guaranteed by a democracy, so that every child, no matter what his personal qualities, social, racial or economic status may be, is entitled to equality of opportunity to develop his talents to their natural limits.

The group of children mentioned above, with mental ages through their school careers from 3 to 11 years, though above the ineducable category, are the grave concern of all who have had practical experience of their plight, whether in trying to run a home, keep a job, or in the courts and penal institutions.

These children are not capable of the reasoning, abstract thought, language development, or even the manual dexterity and visual perception of others in their environment, nor of the social behavior and responsibility expected of normal children in their age group. Thoughtful people in many communities have sought for solutions to their educational needs in varied systems and organizations.

Basically there have been two methods used in most places.

1. A denial that the problem exists, with the retention of such children in regular classrooms, perhaps with some extra help at times, from an exceptional and interested teacher. Two results may follow from this practice.

a. Consistent failure to learn with automatic promotion on an age basis.

b. Consistent failure and retention in lower grades till physical, sexual and social disparity with classmates make for serious behavior problems.

2. Placement in "Special Classes," or in "Special Schools," with children of their own type and age group, who are mentally subnormal.

The first such classes were opened in the period around 1900, and their success in Europe and the U.S.A. led to the opening of many more in the period before the First World War.

Unfortunately few teachers, administrators or supervisors in the past fifty years have had either psychological training or practical experience of this problem, with the result that discussion of the best programs for the mentally defective, has been vague and uninformed and little unanimity has been reached outside of large cities like New York, Chicago and Baltimore, to give but a few examples.

Some administrators, perhaps unduly sensitive to popular pressures have held it undemocratic to remove such children from the regular classes, regardless of their lack of progress and disruption of the class work there.

It may be, of course, that lack of knowledge of the modern methods of "Clinical Psychology", and the difficulty of telling parents exactly what is the child's situation, and what are his future prospects, is a contributory factor in such a course of action, so that the situation is allowed to develop until serious trouble arises, and legal difficulties ensue.

Advocates of special provision in the regular classroom suggest that the regular program can be modified enough to allow a child, with a mental age of seven and one-half years, to compete successfully in a regular fourth grade although he can scarcely read, write or count, and that the social atmosphere of the peer group is more important than the academic progress.

Special class exponents claim that this is clearly impossible. Even though the school personnel may be sure that they have thus placed the



child in a regular group and that he is "Going through the Motions" of being educated, they argue that this is no guarantee that he will in any way be accepted by the other children as a participating member of their social constellation. They advocate the setting up of special schools in separate buildings with specially trained teachers, for the 6 to 16 years old of this category, so that grading and specialized training may be provided as for any other child.

Argument and discussion on these matters has been going on for many years and so far most of what has been said and written on the disposition of such children, has been empirical, emotional, uninformed, or merely controversial, with little or no verifiable or repeatable experimental study to determine the connection, if any, between the level of intelligence and school placement, and the social acceptance or rejection by the peer groups.

In the past there have been some studies, but many have been vitiated by failure to cover cases of real mental retardation, for work on the "Dull and Backward" cases of I.Q.'s between 75 and 90 is out of our field here.

Standards may vary from country to country and state to state, but the evidence of experts is that a child of I.Q. 70 to 85 is a "Borderline case," and that only a child in the range 50 to 75 I.Q. should be considered "Mentally Defective" and ineducable in the regular age grade class situation.

Some investigators have refined these categories into the "Lower Mentally defectives" of I.Q. 50 to 60, just barely educable; "Upper Mentally defectives" of I.Q. 60 to 70, partially educable; with the I.Q. 70 to 80 group called "Borderline Cases", who in some cases, where home influences are good, and school standards elastic enough, can get by with extra help and perhaps finish the 8th grade by the time they are 16 to 18 years of age. Authoritative studies in which the real problem is clearly defined and irrelevant factors excluded are few, and it will be neces-

sary to point out weaknesses in some which lessen the validity of their conclusions.

#### Summary of Authoritative Studies

One panel discussion on "Segregation versus Non-segregation"<sup>1</sup> can be regarded as a typical example and the arguments raised as being based on professional experience and observation and representative of modern thought.

1. Segregation is not physical but is a frame of mind. Good special class teachers can provide adequate outside contacts and experiences to avoid isolation.
2. A mentally defective in a normal class may be an island, isolated and segregated from the normal children.
3. Short term segregation as practiced in some communities until some basic tool skills are learned, may give the mentally defective child a chance to face the problems of life with normal children thereafter.
4. Human behavior is the resultant of environmental and internal forces, so the "Non-segregated" child is more handicapped than the "Segregated".
5. Segregation takes away the feeling of security in belonging, which comes from free contacts with the group and free social experiences.<sup>2</sup>

To quote one discussant, "In general I am against segregation if a child may receive as good, or a better training in a normal group, even though more special help and individual attention may be necessary than is usually provided. The exception is when the detriment to the interests of the group outweighs the benefit the individual derives from such association".<sup>3</sup>

Such are samples of the arguments put forward here, usually against special provision or segregation, for

<sup>1</sup>"Segregation versus Non-Segregation" *Journal of Exceptional Children* Vol. 12, May 1946, pp. 233-240.

In it, these propositions were stated:

<sup>2</sup>Loc. cit.

<sup>3</sup>Loc. cit.

a variety of reasons, but in few cases does it appear that conference speakers and discussants have any objective data on which to base their assertions and opinions.

Among the few studies available we find an article by Frances<sup>4</sup> stating that the mentally defective child is very unhappy in a regular class. He often develops anti-social behavior and abnormal personality traits, from his unsuccessful competition in an unsuitable environment, with his limited intellectual resources.

Pertsch<sup>5</sup> studied the comparative progress of "Subnormal" pupils in regular grades and in special classes, in school achievement, mechanical aptitudes, general knowledge and skill, and character and personality development.

The group was measured over a six month period. The non-segregated were the superior in academic achievement, total growth and partial growth in the 6 month period. The "Special Room" group scored higher in mechanical aptitude, but had not significantly faster growth in the experimental period.

However in this study measurements of character and of personality were confused and on some test items one group was reported superior while the other excelled on related items. Another weakness was that the groups were selected from a community where psychological services recommended pupils for transfer from regular schools, but as accommodation in special classes was inadequate, the actual selection was done by the principals and their choices tended to be the most disruptive elements in the regular class situation.

<sup>4</sup>Martin M. Frances, "The Personality Development and Social Adjustment of Mentally Retarded Children," *American Journal of Mental Deficiency* Vol. 46, Sept. 41, pp. 94-101.

<sup>5</sup>Pertsch, C. Frederick, "A Comparative study of the Progress of Subnormal Pupils in Grades and in Special Classes." (Doctoral Dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia, New York, 1936.

Pertsch himself says that the results cannot be too valid as the groups were not really equated so as to be properly comparable.<sup>6</sup>

In Annette Bennets study<sup>7</sup> of a "matched group" of mentally defectives in the grades as compared with a similar group attending special classes for one or more years, the matching was on the basis of chronological age, mental age and I.Q.

The group remaining in the grades scored higher in all school achievement. Here the equating of the groups is open to criticism as in the "Special Class" groups there were many double defect cases, i.e. twice as many cases of defective speech, poor vision, running ears, (with the probable association of hearing loss) and cases of motor inco-ordination, (possibly cerebral palsy cases.)

Bannet reports, "These findings cannot be explained without further research. They may be due to segregation or to non-segregation, or due to the selection of the special class children".<sup>8</sup> It was noted that the mental defectives left in the regular grades had more "showing off" activities than the normal children and got in to trouble more frequently than the special class group.

Thus it would appear that clear and definite studies are rare and that most literature deals with the social position only indirectly.

One study which is more relevant is Johnson's "Study of the Social Position of Mentally Handicapped Children in the Regular Grades."<sup>9</sup>

This was undertaken to measure

<sup>6</sup>Loc. Cit.

<sup>7</sup>Annette Bennet. "A Comparative study of Subnormal Children in the Elementary Grades". Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 510. (Teacher College, Columbia University, 1932.) 81 pp.

<sup>8</sup>Loc. Cit.

<sup>9</sup>G. Orville Johnson. "A Study of the Social Position of Mentally Handicapped Children in the Regular Grades." *American Journal of Mental Deficiency*, Vol. 55, No. 1, July, 1950, pp. 60-89.

objectively the social position of this group of children in relation to their "Peer Group". They were defined as "Exceptionally slow to learn, retarded academically, low on a group test, with an I.Q. below 69 on an individual Terman Binet test."<sup>10</sup>

Equal numbers of mental defectives were compared with typical children in the same classes.

Twenty-five regular grades from 1 to 5 were used and 4 questions were propounded:

1. Are mental defectives in regular grades isolated, rejected or accepted?
2. To what extent are these children isolated, rejected or accepted?
3. Is there any relationship between the social position of children when subdivided according to intellectual ability into, Defective, Borderline, Normal and Superior groups?
4. Is there any difference between 1, 2 and 4 groups above and the typical group?

#### Methodology of the Study.

Moreno's method was used in the sociometric questionnaires employed to find the social position of all the children in the 25 classes of the first five grades.

The classes were in two separate communities, where all the educable mental defectives were left in regular classes as no special classes or schools existed.

The grade teachers were asked for the names of the possible defectives. Indications given were that such children might be (1) Probably the oldest in a class; (2) Very slow in learning new things; (3) Likely to have repeated one or more grades; (4) Very retarded in achievement; (5) When early first graders, not learning to read, though possibly recognizing and memorizing a few words.

All available records and test data were studied and likely cases were interviewed and tested with Terman's "L" of the Binet Scale. The short form of the California Mental Maturity Test and Progressive Achievement Tests in Reading and Arithmetic were used as screening group tests.

<sup>10</sup>Loc. cit.

All children in a class were tested at one time. Six hundred and eighty children in the 25 classes were thus tested and grouped in four divisions. (1) I.Q. below 59; (2) I.Q. 60-69; (3) I.Q. 70-125; (4) I.Q. above 125.

Ninety-seven individual mental tests produced 39 definitely mental defectives and 39 borderline cases, with the following distribution.

#### Mentally defective

Grade	1	2	3	4	5
Number	6	7	10	11	5

#### Borderlines

Grade	1	2	3	4	5
Number	9	9	7	7	7

The vineland Social Maturity Scale was used with all mental defectives and with a random sample of 20 per cent of all classes, the child being the informant, so that the results could be compared in all cases.

The 6 question sociometric questionnaire, was given covering acceptance and rejection, to all the population of 608 children.<sup>11</sup>

#### Summary of the Johnson Study

Statistically the results proved that, in the population studied, the mentally defective children, left in the regular classes were isolated, and rejected to a far greater degree than the "Borderline" or "Normal" children, or the "Typical" group used as the controls.

The significance of the differences was much as to imply that there is a definite relationship between intelligence level and rejection by the peer group.

(Other studies made by the writer over four years on Special School groups, show a normal distribution of the isolated and rejected children, which could be clearly shown to be related to socio economic and personal status is the group. Rejection in a segregated group is very rare and can be easily seen by even an untrained onlooker when it occurs.)

#### General Conclusions on the Problem

1. There seems to be no place for the

(Continued on page 35)

<sup>11</sup>Loc. cit.



# Guidance Programs In The Secondary Schools Of Indiana

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The idea of guidance is not new. People have, however, become more conscious of the need for it in our modern times, especially since the First World War.

Many states have realized the value of an organized guidance program, and have put them into effect. Indiana has become conscious of the value of such a program within the last few years.

There is a steadily increasing awareness on the part of secondary school administrators concerning the importance and need for guidance as an integral part of their educational curriculum. Awareness must mean something more than a vague preception of something being needed in order to help boys and girls meet their problems. That something must be known, understood, and appreciated, if a good guidance program will function. The Indiana school administrators are becoming aware of this importance.

The schools have not necessarily been indifferent to the demands for a new kind of education, which would be more helpful in preparing youth for life in the modern society, but they have been confused as what to do. They have been concerned and have gradually expanded their offerings of subjects, so as, to meet this need. They have come to realize the value of guidance as an integral part of this new kind of education. As life in the modern society has become more complex, the obligations of the schools have increased. Modern society insists that youth problems are educational problems and that it is

the job of the schools to find a way to help youth solve his problems. Many secondary schools have accepted the challenge and are trying to provide the help needed.

A study was completed in June 1950 of the guidance programs in the secondary schools of Indiana. The data for the study were obtained from a questionnaire sent to the principals of the secondary schools of Indiana. The following report is a summary of this study.

Functional guidance programs are to be found in small and medium sized schools as well as in the larger ones in the state. Administrators in small schools can see the advantages of guidance programs as well as those in the larger city schools. All boys and girls need help in preparing them for a more useful life after they have completed secondary school, even if they may live in small towns or villages.

A functional guidance program has been developed by secondary schools having a large pupil enrollment, such as, those found in large cities. This situation has existed for sometime. The small schools, with small enrollments, evidence great interest in inaugurating organized guidance into their schools. Many of the small enrollment schools already have organized programs as a part of their curriculum.

The survey reveals that the greater number of the guidance programs are to be found in the northern section of the state. This fact can be explained perhaps on the fact that more of the guidance programs are located

in the largest schools. The greatest number of large cities are located in this section of the state. Another contributing factor in the location of the programs is that of the money required for a special guidance program. Most of the schools in the southern section of the state have to depend entirely upon State Aid to carry on their schools, whereas those in the north section have other sources of revenue to supplement the aid they get from the state.

The guidance program requires the services and cooperation of the entire school staff. If an administrator does not have the assistance of the entire staff, no amount of specialization on the part of few can compensate for its lack. The degree of success attained in a guidance program is determined by the leadership and support given by the school administrators to the program. Unless the school administrator gives his full support and leadership to the program he cannot expect full staff participation in the guidance program. The study revealed that good staff participation can be found in the secondary schools of Indiana.

The survey reveals that there is no standardization among the schools as to the specific amount of time allotted to their organized guidance programs. The time varies, from no time at all in some schools; to full time for all personnel employed in the system in others. The size of the school did not influence the amount of time allotted. Some small schools allot as much time to their programs as do some of the larger schools. The time allocated to guidance varies considerably in some schools. Some days they use a certain definite amount of time, while on other days a different amount of time is allocated to their guidance program.

The guidance programs in the state placed great emphasis on the fact that many of the subjects in the curriculum were used to further the teaching of guidance. Vocational subjects, social studies, and English were used most extensively. Many of the other

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# Abstracts of Unpublished Master's Theses

Jordan, Thomas. *An Analysis of the Characteristics of the Exceptional Child*. July, 1951. 45 pp. (No. 727).

**Problem.** It was the purpose of this study (1) to evaluate the characteristics of children referred to the Special Education Clinic, (2) to draw a clinical profile of the average outpatient referred to the Clinic, and (3) to evaluate the necessity for such clinical services to the school systems of Indiana.

**Method.** The method used was the case-study method. One hundred cases were selected from clinic files and the contents were tabulated and analyzed. The results were presented in the body of the thesis.

**Conclusions.** (1) On the basis of this study it would appear that the children were a significantly deviate group. They were mentally retarded, educationally retarded, and fell below the 50th percentile in adjustment as measured by the California Test of Personality.

(2) In view of the large number of cases referred to the clinic and in view of the fact that these cases would otherwise go largely untreated, it would seem reasonable to infer that clinical service is needed for the children of Indiana.

(3) Since there is evidence that the problem suspected by the school authorities is not the real problem, it is thought that professional diagnostic service and treatment are essential if all children are to be given an adequate education.

Newlin, Lyman O., *The Violations and Causes of Violations of the Rules of the Indiana High School Athletic Association from 1904 through 1949*. August, 1951. 49 pp. (No. 730).

**Problem.** It was the purpose of this study (1) to determine how many cases have come before the Commissioners and the Board of Control since the Indiana High School Athletic Association was organized in the Year 1904; (2) to place each

individual case under its proper heading; (3) to record the number of violations per year and for the total forty-six years which determined suspensions and probations of schools and the ineligibility of individual players; (4) to reveal what progress is being made to keep school officials, students, and school patrons from making so many violations.

**Method.** The information and data used in this study were obtained from the yearly handbooks of the Indiana High School Athletic Association found on file in the Commissioner's office in Indianapolis for the period 1904 through 1949.

Details of case histories were written down in notebooks, and then the individual cases was recorded in its logical place on a master chart which contained divisional, subject, and by-law headings for all forty-six years of the study. Total number of cases were added per year and for the five-year periods according to the divisional headings and sub-headings. These totals were then used in making the statistical tables.

**Findings.** A total of 1,961 cases came before the two Commissioners and the Board of Control from 1904 through 1949. This is an average of 42.63 cases per year.

A total of ninety-nine suspension violations and 220 probation violations resulted out of the 1,961 cases.

Most of the schools accepted the decisions given by the two Commissioners and the Board of Control as indicated by the fact that only eighty-nine cases involved appeals of former decisions. Also in only nine of the eighty-nine appeal cases were the first decisions changed or reversed, and those nine had new or changing evidence the second time.

The number of cases per year ranged from a low of one in 1907 to a high of 114 in 1933.

Playing of Ineligible Boys, Misconduct, Independent Playing, and schools playing Non-member Schools

were the leading causes for suspension; while Use of Non-certified Referees and Umpires, Misconduct, Scholarship, and Enrollment Difficulties plus Use of Five-year Players were the leading causes for probation.

In cases involving the eligibility of players, 69.3 per cent were declared ineligible. The main causes of this ineligibility were Change of School, Independent Playing and Scholarship.

The total number of all types of violations per year are decreasing. The number of suspensions has declined steadily since 1933, and the number of probations has declined since its height around the 1920's and the 1930's.

The trend is that more principals, coaches, trustees, and school patrons are asking for information and seeking the answer to problems many times before the difficulty actually arises.

In more than ninety-five cases out of every one hundred, the decisions and information given by the two Commissioners and the Board of Control have been accepted as right and just, and have gone unchallenged by the member schools and the communities which they serve.

Pfau, Sister Edith, S. P., *The Execution of the Stations of the Cross for St. Frances Xavier Convent Chapel, Wilmette, Illinois*. August, 1951. 76 pp. (No. 728).

**Problem.** The work consisted in the execution of the fourteen illustrations for the Way of the Cross. It involved six steps: first, the determination of the medium and ground to be used; second, consideration of the color and style in relation to setting; third, preparation of the supporting panels; fourth, composition and drawing of the pictures; fifth, the painting; and sixth, the final finish.

**Method.** Creative and experimental methods were followed in the work. The pictures were original compositions executed in egg-oil tempera. The medium was chosen after a consideration of the various factors in-

volved and the execution of an experimental painting.

*Results.* The paintings were completed satisfactorily and installed in the setting for which they were planned. In the thesis were included photographs of the steps involved in the painting, of the interior of the chapel, and of all the finished paintings with a color print of one. A chart of color samples of the palette used was also included. An explanatory text covering the meaning of the pictures, the pictorial composition, and the use of color accompanied each photograph of the completed works.

Crow, Violet Strahla, *The Teaching of Family Living in the Fifth Grade*. Sept., 1950. 56 pp. (No. 645).

*Problem.* It was the purpose of this study (1) to determine whether there is a need to teach more family living in the fifth grade; (2) to show how this program could be started in a school; (3) to present some specific units on family living which were taught in the fifth grade; and the results obtained from these units

*Method.* The library and experimental methods were followed in the study. All available materials in the field of family living in the elementary school were read critically and analyzed. It was found that the field of clothing and foods had the greatest amount of available material and that the field of personality development had the least available material. The needs of the children were determined and units were planned and taught according to these needs. The units were in the fields of foods, clothing, and personality. The results on tests before the units were taught and after the units were taught were recorded and analyzed. Tests given were: Otis Achievement Forms R and S, the General Mills Elementary Nutrition Test, the California Personality Test, and teacher-made clothing tests.

*Findings.* On the General Mills Survey which was made on eating

habits of the pupils there was a lack of yellow and green vegetables, potatoes and butter. Also all diets were low in milk.

The results of the units according to test scores are summarized in the following sentences. There was a gain in the average score or mean the second time each of the tests measuring that unit was given. There was an average gain by each pupil of from three to eight points on the tests the second time they were given. On the Otis Classification Test ten people gained the second time it was given. On the General Mills Elementary Nutrition Test ten people gained and on the California Test of Personality, eleven pupils gained the second time these tests were given. On the teacher-made clothing test all of the students gained the second time it was administered. On the General Mills Foods test and the California Personality test there were only two who did not gain and on the Otis Achievement Test there were three who did not gain on the second testing.

Lucas, Evelyn G., *A Survey of the School Libraries in Clay County*. July, 1951. 43 pp. (No. 726).

*Problem.* The object of this survey has been to give an honest, fair and unbiased statement of facts based on actual conditions existing in the school libraries of Clay County. The survey does not include the schools in the city of Brazil.

*Method.* The questionnaire and the personal interview methods under the Normative Survey procedure were used in making this survey. Nineteen letters were sent out to the schools in Clay County and nineteen answers were received. After notes were made on these letters, nineteen visits were made, one to each school. Notes were made on these visits corresponding to notes taken by the state inspectors on their visits to the various schools. Sample check sheets were borrowed from the State Department of Public Instruction. All notes were analyzed to determine how these

school libraries compared with the standards for school libraries set up by the State of Indiana and the American Library Association.

*Findings.* A total of nineteen schools were visited in Clay County, five schools holding continuous commissions, fourteen holding commissions, two of these having grades one through twelve and twelve schools with grades one through eight. Six of these twelve with grades one through eight are one-room rural schools. Five of these one-room rural schools were found to be in one township. The books contained in these libraries were predominately reference books. Only three teachers in the nineteen schools had any library training. In each of the nineteen schools, less than half of the money recommended by the state to be used for library books was spent for such. Not one of the nineteen schools met the standards set up by either the state or the American Library Association.

Morgan, Ruth Holaday, *History of the Radio Division of Indiana State Teachers College*. June, 1951. 126 pp. (No. 723).

*Problem.* It was the purpose of this study to trace the history and outstanding developments, including nation-wide recognition, of the Radio Division of the Speech Department of Indiana State Teachers College from its early beginnings in 1934 to the present, which is May 31, 1951.

*Method.* The material used in this study was obtained through an exhaustive search of periodical literature, newspapers, bulletins of Indiana State Teachers College, and annual reports of the Radio Division, to be found in the Indiana State Teachers College library and in the files of the script room of the Radio Division in the Language and Mathematics Building.

The historical method of research was used and the development of both radio courses and radio broadcasts treated in chronological order. It was impossible to treat the courses and broadcasts as separate topics



since, during the development of the thesis, it is shown that the two are closely interrelated—many of the broadcasts coming into existence because of their need to supply the students in radio with opportunities for practical application of the broadcast procedures and problems taught in the classroom.

**Findings.** During all the seventeen consecutive years the College has been on the air, the Radio Division has aired approximately 5,665 shows, consuming a total of about 81,859 minutes of air time. WBOW has donated all this air time free of charge, for which the Radio Director publicly thanks the manager of WBOW every year in his annual report.

In seventeen years the Radio Division has grown from a small faculty committee in charge of a few broadcasts to its present status as a fully developed division of the Speech Department. In fourteen years, it has increased its curriculum from a single course of radio instruction to eleven undergraduate and eleven graduate courses, including a one hundred hour radio major. Its broadcast schedule has grown from seven weekly programs to its present listing of fifteen regular weekly shows. Its personnel has increased from just one professor, teaching alone, to a studio staff of more than seven. State's Radio Division has come to be recognized, both locally and nationally, as a pioneer in radio education, and in so doing, helps greatly to increase the prestige of the College. Like all embryo educational experiments, the beginnings were small and the studio quarters makeshift; but, today, the College Radio Division is operating from a most modern studio suite on the first floor of the new Language and Mathematics Building.

This study has shown that, through its extensive service in the fields of educational enlightenment, entertainment, public service, and public relations, the Radio Division of Indiana State Teachers College is at the present time more than justifying its existence. The College Board, Administration, Trustees, and Faculty,

as well as the Radio Director, who is now familiarly known throughout the Wabash Valley as "The Hoosier Schoolmaster of the Air," under whose personal supervision all programs are aired, are all justifiably proud of Indiana State Teachers College whose pioneering efforts have made an outstanding contribution to the fourth "R" of education—Radio.

McBeth, William Q., *An Investigation of the Values of Some Factors Influencing Student Achievement*. April, 1951. 33 pp. (No. 720).

**Problem.** It was the purpose of this quotients, personality scores, scholarship indexes, and general educational development scores of students, and by these comparisons, secure a picture of their relative values as determiners and predictors of the indexes and of the trends of accomplishment.

**Method.** The investigation was statistical in nature. A total of one hundred and twenty-four (124) high school pupils were investigated in Spring of 1950. They were from Linden High School in Montgomery Sounty, Indiana, and the Indiana State Teachers College Laboratory School in Terre Haute, Indiana. Indexes, scores, and quotients were secured from cumulative records and from tests administered during the investigation.

All indexes, scores, and quotients were placed in various combinations upon a series of twelve (12) correlation graphs. This procedure was for the purpose of the establishment of comparative values. The Pearson Product-Moment Method of computation was employed.

**Findings.** The findings of an investigation of this nature are perforce nonconclusive but the seemingly most pertinent observations are here-in listed.

In this investigation, intelligence quotients were better predictors of General Educational Development than were teacher makrs.

No relationship between intelligence and personality were discovered.

The totality of personality can not be used reliably as a predicting factor of achievement.

Scholarship indexes may be somewhat affected by personality traits.

Certain facets of personality have a positive but slight relationship with achievement.

Achievement prediction based on intelligence quotients will likely be of some value.

The author feels that this study contains evidence warranting further study of personality and personality traits as aids in predicting future scholastic achievement.

Felling, Leslie W., *An Analysis of the Mathematical Vocabulary Essential for Reading General Science Textbooks in Indiana Junior High Schools*. August, 1951. 181 pp. (No. 729).

**Problem.** The problem of this investigation was to identify the mathematical concepts that are essential for reading standard textbooks of general science in the Indiana junior high schools.

**Method.** The procedure was to read nine general science textbooks that were adopted for the junior high schools in the state of Indiana and to tabulate the frequencies of occurrence of mathematical terms that were found in those books. The concepts sought were whole numbers, common fractions, decimal values, expressions of per cent, denominate quantities, and other terms with mathematical connotations. The data were secured, analyzed, and were presented in this research.

**Findings.** Whole numbers and integral parts of mixed numbers were used 41,356 times in the nine general science textbooks.

Seventy-one and eight-tenths per cent of the common fractions in the nine general science textbooks were used to express parts of a whole.

Seventeen decimal fractions of a total 951 in the nine junior high



school science textbooks were decimals with more than two places.

Approximately eighty-seven and three-tenths per cent of the 1,722 expressions of per cent in the nine general science textbooks were expressions of per cent ranging from one to ninety-nine per cent.

Expressions of numbers of miles in the nine general science textbooks ranged from zero to over one million miles.

Expressions of numbers of acres in the nine general science textbooks ranged from zero to over one million acres.

Expressions of numbers of tons in the nine general science textbooks ranged from zero to over one million tons.

No expressions of numbers of minutes over ninety-nine minutes occurred in the nine general science textbooks.

Expressions of numbers of gallons in the nine general science textbooks ranged from zero to over one million gallons.

Three hundred sixteen different terms with mathematical connotations were used 45,325 times in the nine general science textbooks for the junior high school level.

The frequencies of twenty-five terms total more than half of the 45,325 occurrences of terms with mathematical connotations in the nine books. These terms were: work, power, energy, weight, force, pressure, surface, amount, current, temperature, feet, unit (whole), number, pounds, inches, miles, distance, space, per, hours, measure, line, increase, direction, and ray.

Brentlinger, William B., *An Introduction to and Survey of the Field of Foreign Missionary Radio Broadcasting*. July, 1951. 122 pp. (No. 732).

**Problem.** It was the purpose of this study to survey the field of foreign missionary radio broadcasting in an attempt to discover the growth, expansion, present practice, and effective-

ness of this relatively untried phase of foreign missionary endeavor.

**Method.** The method of procedure consisted of the combined techniques of the questionnaire and documentary analysis. A questionnaire was formulated and sent to each missionary radio station that could be located. Further information was obtained through a survey of the available literature in the field, and through the collection and examination of printed material from each of the missionary radio stations participating in the study.

**Findings.** There is sufficient indication from listener reports to conclude that the stations are attaining a listening audience; however, the field of missionary broadcasting, in general, is not yet mature enough, and there is not enough evidence to say that this is the most effective means of presenting the gospel on the foreign mission field.

On the other hand, it is evident that missionary radio broadcasting has proved a more than adequate method of proclaiming the holy tenets of the Christian faith, and has become a firmly implanted procedure on the mission field. Only in future years will one realize the true worth of this method of foreign missionary activity.

Walker, Ursa Donald, *A Survey of Service Work in the School Shops of Indiana*. June, 1951. 73 pp. (No. 724).

**Problem.** In this study the writer has attempted to determine (1) to what extent service work constitutes a significant element of school shop work, (2) what general types of service work are requested of shops, (3) what are the advantages and disadvantages of such work, (4) when this work is done, (5) what are the methods of controlling such work.

**Method.** The data for this survey were gathered by means of a questionnaire sent to five hundred thirty-three industrial arts teachers throughout the state of Indiana; two hundred seventy-four of these were re-

turned in usable form, representing 51.2 per cent. Additional information was procured from letters and comments submitted by men in the field and from a canvas of magazine articles.

**Findings.** Furniture repairing and building special school equipment constitutes the greatest portion of service work done in school shops. Ninety-six and seven tenths per cent of teachers reporting revealed that one or more kinds of service work were done in their school shops. Eighty-five and eight tenths per cent of the teachers reporting stated that this work was done during regular class periods. Eighty-four and six tenths per cent checked that such work took the teachers away from the class room at times. Eighty-six and five tenths per cent stated that it took the pupils from the class room at times. Advantages were checked by 60 per cent, disadvantages 35.5 per cent. Service work was justifiable according to the majority of teachers checking these items. Fifty-seven and seven tenths per cent checking that they would not favor elimination of such work. Of the 81.4 per cent saying that janitors or other did maintenance work, 60.2 per cent said they did not have separate shops, thus showing heavy use of school shop equipment by others outside the department.

The survey revealed that service work constitutes a problem of some magnitude to most industrial arts teachers, but that only 13.5 per cent receive extra pay or consideration in their teaching load for doing this work. Questionnaire results showed that most schools endeavor to control such work, but that controls are often ineffective.

The following recommendations resulted from the study:

1. Administrators should be given some training in the underlying principles of industrial arts.
2. Teachers in training should be informed of the implications of this problem.
3. That a separate shop and equip-

ment be provided for maintenance workmen.

4. Approval of all service work requests be given by the administrator, with final approval vested in the teacher.

Deagan, Ernest A., *An Analysis of the Effect of the Time Factor in the Student Performances on the Schorling, Clark, and Potter, Hundred-Problem Arithmetic Test*. Aug., 1951. 55 pp. (No. 731).

**Problem** The purpose of this investigation was to determine the effect of the time factor in the performances of a group of college freshmen at Indiana State Teachers College on the Schorling, Clark, and Potter Hundred-Problem Arithmetic Test.

**Method.** The experimental-survey method was followed in the study. A total of 240 college freshmen were given two forms of the Hundred-Problem Arithmetic Test, Form V and Form W. The original group was divided into two equal sections. Section I was given one form of the test under standard timed conditions, and then another form of the test was administered with unlimited time. Section II was first given the test with unlimited time and then was administered the test under standard timed conditions. The test that was taken under standard timed conditions was the same form whether administered first or last. The untimed test was Form W of the Hundred-Problem Arithmetic Test and was the same form of this test whether it was administered first or last.

**Findings, I.** It was determined from the performances of the college students that the median number of correct solutions was 85.33 while the median number of correct solutions by the twelfth grade standardization population was 70.00. On the timed test the college freshmen who were administered the Hundred-Problem Arithmetic Test under timed conditions did significantly better than the twelfth grade standardization population.

2. The correlation between the stu-

dent's scores on the total tests for timed and untimed conditions was evaluated by Pearson's Product Moment Formula and was found to be 0.74. This was a significantly high coefficient of correlation.

3. By determining the difference between the means and the standard error differences of the means, it was determined that the college freshmen did significantly better on the untimed test than on the timed test.

4. The greatest increase on any one section of the test when time was unlimited was made on the section, "Fractions, Decimals, and Per Cents." The increase on this section was 10.1% or approximately 2 times as much as in any other section of the test.

In each section the percentage of correct solutions was increased with unlimited time.

Nisbet, Samuel, Jr., *The Practicability of Latin in the Secondary School*. March, 1951. 116 pp. (No. 718).

**Problem.** It was the purpose of this study to point out the real value of the Latin language and to present materials that would encourage the pupil to undertake the study of Latin and also aid in the retention of Latin in the schools of today.

**Method.** The method in the preparation of this study was through library and documentary research.

**Findings.** The study of Latin in high school helps to meet the needs of an American boy or girl to extend his linguistic horizon by discovering that the more he learns about the important ancestor of English, namely Latin, the better he can understand and use many English words. This training enlarges the vocabulary and impresses in the mind a discriminating use of work. Latin contributes to the command of English through the enrichment of it in synonyms expressing the finer shades of meaning; through acquaintance with the original or underlying meaning of words, through familiarity with the principles of word formation, and through

the insight and through the structure of the English language afforded by a mastery of the Latin.

Through the study of Latin the pupils become acquainted with such qualities as patriotism, integrity, uprightness, obedience, feeling of justice, and pride in worthy achievements, as are demonstrated by the lives of famous Romans. They may compare ancient and modern political methods, political parties, class struggles, social reformers and radicals with modern representatives of radical and labor parties. With the development of an historical perspective and of a political and economic background; with constant comparison of present-day conditions, and with the development of a right attitude toward social institutions, we train for better citizenship.

Nor need anyone think that our borrowing from the Roman treasure house has ended; the years that come will bring occasions for new words and doubtless will supply our need over and over again from this same source. The derivatives which were examined should suffice to convince us that Latin is not dead, that all language lives and grows with the life and men and the growth of institutions, that words partake of the nature of their users, that they have character and personality.

## Hardaway . . .

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muting students, and (c) students whose home addresses were beyond convenient commuting distance to the college. (The latter group were chiefly dormitory residents). It was felt that each of these groups would have significant basic factors which affected its enrollment, and these factors must be determined if the recruitment program is to be effective throughout the state.

Two hundred seventy-nine freshmen responded to the survey. Of this number 99 were Terre Haute residents (57 female, 42 male); 54 were commuting students (21 female, 33



male); and 126 were classified as dormitory students (65 male, 61 female). The total group thus consisted of 140 male students and 139 female students.

#### *Presentation and Analysis of the Data*

The data were tabulated into categories based on sex of the students and the place of residence of the students. Table I presents the frequencies of checking of the factors as indicated by the students without regard to final rank of the factors.

Table II presents the final rank of the factors for the various groups of students on the basis of frequency and weighted rank.

In determining the weighted rank the following procedure was used:

Assume that a factor received 5 first place rankings, 4 second place rankings, 4 third place rankings, 2 fourth place rankings, 1 fifth place ranking, 3 sixth place, and 4 unranked, or above 6. The first place rankings were multiplied by 7 ( $5 \times 7$ ); the second place by 6 ( $4 \times 6$ ); the third place by 5 ( $4 \times 5$ ); the fourth by 4 ( $2 \times 4$ ); the fifth by 3 ( $1 \times 5$ ); the sixth by 2 ( $3 \times 2$ ), and all others (above sixth or unranked by 1 ( $4 \times 1$ ); the products were then summed giving total weighted points.

It is noticed that the final rank of the items (Table II) closely parallels the frequency of checking of the items (Table I).

A careful analysis of Table II reveals the pertinent data secured from the survey. The items in this table are listed in the order of their importance when considered by the total group.

#### *Conclusions*

The major conclusions reached by the study are as follows:

1. There is somewhat of a consistency with all groups of students as to what are the significant factors in recruitment. The location of the college is a significant factor, and especially with resident and commuting students. It is not quite so significant with students residing out of commuting distance.

2. The low cost of tuition is a significant factor in recruitment, regardless of where the student lives.

3. The fact that Indiana State is a teacher training institution carries considerable weight as a factor bringing students to the campus, particularly non-resident students.

4. The advice of high school teachers, parents, and college students plays an important part in the recruitment of students.

5. Such activities as our "college day programs in the various high schools," attendance to athletic contests, attendance to college campus activities, publications, and college off-campus activities have not been predominant factors in the recruitment of students.

6. The advice of alumni is more significant for those residing away from Terre Haute than it is for the Terre Haute and commuting students.

7. The advice of brothers and sisters becomes a weaker factor of recruitment as the distance from Terre Haute increases.

8. Scholarships play a significant part in recruitment of non-resident students.

#### *Recommendations*

It would seem, on the basis of this study, that the best areas in which to strengthen our recruitment program would be that of contracting not only students themselves, but their teachers, their parents, and our own college students already enrolled. It is shown that these are effective elements; if we can publicize the college well in these areas, no doubt the efforts would reap benefits.

Naturally we must always capitalize upon such factors as the convenient location of the school, the low cost of tuition, and the fact that Indiana State is a Teacher Training Institution. These facts must be brought to the attention of prospective students in a clear and convincing manner.

It would seem also that our more expensive devices of recruitment have been our least effective. The college day programs, publications, and vari-

ous campus and off-campus activities designed for recruitment purposes all rank very low as far as effectiveness is concerned. Further study should be made of these factors in order to increase their effectiveness, or to eliminate those which appear to be unwarranted.

## Marks . . .

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cluding football and also offer plans exclusive of football.

5. There is a wide variation in the number of special benefits offered over and above the standard injuries. Likewise all states offer different indemnities for individual injuries. Average indemnities for some different types of injuries are: loss of sight of one eye, \$200; fractured radius, \$52.50; dislocation of the knee, \$20; and broken tooth, \$12.

6. As to frequency of type of injury, it was found that injury to the mouth area occurs most frequently, actually comprising nearly 30 per cent of all injuries; hand and finger injuries ranked second with 15 per cent; the nose, third with 9 per cent; clavicle, 6 per cent; the fibula and radius slightly over 5 per cent; the knee, ankle, foot and toe area ranked seventh, eighth, and ninth with percentages of 5.0, 4.9, and 3.8 respectively. Injuries to the skull and head rank fourteenth in frequency with a percentage of 1.9. As to protection payments for each of the types of injuries it was found that the teeth rank first in number of occurrences and also claim the largest total payments (20 per cent of total payments). The fibula-tibia ranked fifth in frequency of injury and second in total payments (11 per cent). The clavicle and radius-ulna ranked third and fourth in percentage of total claims, hand and finger injuries, fifth, and nose injuries, sixth.

#### *Conclusions*

On the basis of the findings a number of conclusions are apparent. It is noted that in 16 states there is



as yet no state insurance plan for high school athletes. In these states the parents must bear the full burden of expense connected with athletic injuries, unless the school cognizant of the obligations meets the expense as it arises. However, it would appear, that there is a definite trend that all states will adopt athletic injury benefit plans. Thirty-two states now have such a plan. The plans are a definite success in a number of these states, and experience show that it is better for schools to inaugurate athletic insurance plans than to meet the costs themselves or require the parents to do so.

The original and basic purpose of instituting benefit plans was to give financial aid. Plans still may be fully justified solely on that account. However, this objective has in some instances actually become secondary to the advantages offered by the unusual opportunity for the study of athletic injuries and their reduction in number and severity.

State associations plans are much more numerous than commercially underwritten plans, chiefly because of the reluctance of the commercial underwriters to enter the area of athletic insurance. This attitude on the part of commercial companies may arise from over-cautiousness, higher overhead expense, and scant competition. Because of this stand on the part of commercial companies, state associations have forged ahead on their own and have developed successful programs.

### Recommendations

As a result of the survey, the writer strongly feels that a number of recommendations are justified. These are as follows:

1. All scholastic athletes should be covered by some type of athletic insurance, and the coverage should be compulsory.

2. The benefits should be expanded to be as broad as possible, including in all cases special benefits of principal sum in case of death, transportation, hospitalization, and X-ray.

3. Experience has shown that the

pledging of financial support to the plans from the general funds of state associations is a worthy activity without great risk of heavy financial loss. It seems reasonable that a levy of approximately five per cent on the proceeds of state athletic events should be devoted to such purposes. If local circumstances make such a diversion of funds impracticable, the facilities of reputable commercial companies should be investigated.

4. The distinct advantage to the state associations in the operation of their own plans of fostering the safety aspects of sports and thereby curtailing the payment of benefits and increasing the safety of participation should be fully recognized.

5. If a commercial company does the underwriting, there should be close cooperation between the company and the sponsoring or endorsing state association. The program should have uniform application to the member schools of the association, so that the coverage may be as complete as possible.

## Jordan . . .

(Continued from page 27)

mental defective in a regular class on educational, social or mental hygiene bases.

2. The regular class cannot meet the needs of the mental defective.

3. There is more possibility of adaptation of regular school programs to the borderline than to the needs of the mentally defective children.

4. The mental defective is significantly more isolated and rejected than the typical child in the same classroom, because of his low intelligence alone.

5. Although physically present in the grade group, the mentally defectives are socially segregated, so that segregation can occur without the child being put in a special class or special school. Thus the opposition to special classes and schools as causing segregation is weakened, as total segregation was found in regular class situations.

6. Classmates rejected the mentally

defective for unacceptable behavior, not for lack of intelligence or poor attainment. (Note) The bad behavior described by the rejecting group well be the aggressive reaction to the frustration imposed by the necessity to attempt finer distinctions and more abstractions than are possible to a lower mental age, in the regular class situation.

7. Special classes and schools can serve the mental defective best socially and educationally when the necessary emphases are secured on the social side and when good personal habits, hygiene and personal care are practically taught.

8. Any comparisons made between the situation of the defective and the gifted children appear to show that on social grounds, the necessity for special class provision for the gifted is not proved.

Further evidence is needed as to whether regular schools or special classes and schools teach more of the essential learning skills to mental defectives and this could well be followed up with an investigation as to which system better teaches the skills needed for happy social, industrial community and family life, by surveys of equated groups over a period of years.

## Beanblossom . . .

(Continued from page 28)

subjects ranked highly as being suitable to guidance. The subjects alone cannot serve the purpose of guidance. It takes an able, well qualified, well trained teacher in addition to the subjects of the curriculum to be a good guidance teacher.

While colleges are preparing teachers to teach subject matter, they should also train them to be good counselors. The teacher with the ability to counsel the pupils as well as a thorough knowledge of subject matter would be an asset to any school system, large or small.

A comparison of the findings of this study with those of other studies, shows a marked increase in the use

of tests. A larger number of tests are being used in the secondary schools at the present time. Not only are tests being used in administrative and supervisory situations, but many varieties of tests are being used in instruction, diagnosis, and counseling. A good testing program can supply much data for administrators, teachers, and counselors. It also can be of much service to boys and girls in aiding them in adjustment to school life and the curriculum.

It has been noted in the study that many teachers contribute significant data for the cumulative records of the secondary schools of Indiana. That is indicative of the growing interest manifested in guidance for our secondary schools of all sizes. Teachers in small schools as well as in the large ones help contribute significant data for the records. The cooperation of teachers, administrators, and guidance personnel is essential to an effective guidance program. It is an encouraging fact that this cooperation is gradually spreading through the secondary schools of Indiana. The introduction of cumulative record forms into personnel work has, perhaps, done more than any other step to educate personnel workers to the necessity of analyzing the past

in order to understand both the present and future.

An extremely wide variability in the records of different schools creates difficult problems in the exchange of records and their efficient use by school officers. A way to overcome this would be for a state-wide or even a nation-wide standardization of cumulative record forms for all schools. School administrators could then send them along with the child when he moves, and eliminate much extra and unnecessary clerical work.

A large percentage of the secondary schools in Indiana have some form of cumulative record. It should become compulsory that all schools have some form of record of its pupils, if they receive the greatest benefit from their school experience.

Both large and small schools evidenced a marked degree of interest in the activity of placement. The problem of job placement has been sadly neglected by the schools and by society as well. One of the valuable results of the depression is the recognition of the need for better placement facilities. It is gratifying to note the increase in the development of interest in placement. The placement service is being properly considered a part of the total educational program by many schools.

A special facilities room is to be found in very few of the secondary schools of Indiana. Much of the counseling is done in the homeroom, classroom, or in the principal's office. Many administrators are cognizant of the need for a special facilities room and hope to be able to provide one in the future.

The schools indicated a marked degree of interest in supplying vocational information about trades, professions, and semi-professions to the students who wanted to prepare themselves along these lines. From one-half to two-thirds of the secondary schools in Indiana offer vocational information to their students. Many different ways are used in supplying this information.

Specific training is offered to the students in a large majority of the secondary schools. The greatest number give specific training that will enable the graduate to enter college. Some offer specific training that will prepare the student to go directly from high school into some chosen trade or into distributive occupations.

It is indeed gratifying to note, as a result of this study, that there is a growing interest and a development of programs in the area of *functional guidance* in the secondary schools of Indiana.



*During the holiday season and the new year ahead, may you  
find peace and contentment - - happiness and health.*

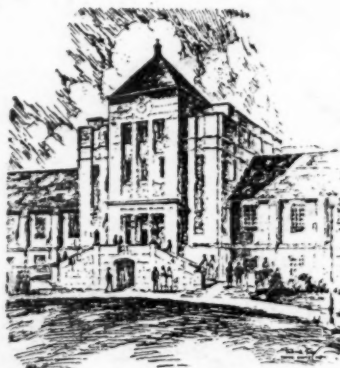
*This is our wish to you!*

The College Board and Staff  
of  
*Indiana State Teachers College*





"celebrating 82 years of distinguished service"



# FOUNDERS DAY

**Saturday, January 5, 1952**

- GUEST GRADUATE SPEAKER

DR. ISAAC K. BECKES, '35

—*president of Vincennes University*

- BOOK AND TORCH CEREMONY

S. DALE JAMISON, '39

—*representing Indiana State Teachers College  
Alumni Association*

JAMES A. GEORGE

—*1952 class president*

- DR. RALPH N. TIREY, *president of Indiana  
State Teachers College, presiding*

- 25th observation of the annual  
Founders Day commemoration at

*Indiana State Teachers College*

at Terre Haute since 1870